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Participation of Ethiopian Women in education and Development

Sewnet Mamo Mengesha

The population of Ethiopia, which is about 55 million, is the second largest in Africa. According to the current growth rate it is projected to be doubled over the next 20 years. UN's human development index states that Ethiopia is one of the lowest four countries in terms of social development. After the end of a long civil war in 1991, it is in the process of social and economical transformation.

Ethiopia is not only at a lowest stage of social development but also it is one of educationally disadvantaged countries in the world. Most of the school aged children are not in school. Primary school gross enrollment ratio (GER) was only 24:10 (1993/94). Further more, there is imbalance in the GER of girls and boys, 19% and 30%, respectively.

There are favorable conditions for increasing school enrollment due to "peace and order" as well as the commitment of the government towards improving educational opportunities. However, the improvement is still benefiting boys more than girls, as we see the 1996/97 (MOE) gross enrollment ratio at different level. In primary school in grades (1-6), boys are 50.3% whereas girls are 29.3%; in grades (1-8) boys are 43% and girls are 26.0% and in senior secondary schools, girls are 14% and boys are 17.9%.

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There is a strong recursive relationship between economic growth and education. The level of education in any country is determined by the level of economic growth and development. Education contributes to economic growth, increases productivity of individual worker, contributes to the minimization of inequalities in income distribution and alleviation of poverty, improves the health status of the society, contributes to population reduction and toward building a more cultured and politically aware society.

Economic growth without improvement in human resource is unthinkable. In Ethiopia women constitute about 50% of the population and contributes about 50% to subsistence production. However, the Ethiopian women are subject to gender discrimination in every aspect of their life than any other women in any part of the world in economic, social, cultural and legal aspects. They do have less access to schooling and employment. They are subject to traditional practices such as FGM, early marriage etc; which leave them to life long suffering. They travel long distance to fetch water and fuel wood, they cook in poorly ventilated houses which expose them to eye disease and blindness; lack of grinding mills in rural areas make the rural women grind grain for the family consumption etc. The health service is also less accessible for women while their need is high as compared to their male counterparts. Women need more health at the time of pregnancy, delivery and child upbringing. However, the level of family planning is very low even in the urban centers. Ethiopian women are also subject to gender violence: rape, domestic violence, political violence, sexual and emotional harassment etc. Women's access to productive resource is very low and the same is true with regard to information which places them in disadvantage position. The legal environment discriminates against women. The law confirms the early marriage practice which makes women carry the burden of child bearing and upbringing at their early year of their childhood. This significantly hampers any effort of women in pursuing their education. The macro politics

discriminates against women due to the in-built gender bias in their formulation and implementation.

Gender discrimination affect not only women but also the overall growth of the economy. It makes half segment of the population not to perform to their full potential in social, economic and political life. This gender discrimination may arise, as a result of gaps: policy gaps, investment gaps and earning gaps (UN 1991). The policy gaps include government's neglect of women in development policies. The development policies of the government focus on the major macro indicators and sectors largely occupied by men such as export sector, manufacturing sector, etc...; while not incorporating the informal and the subsistence sectors largely occupied by women. It also include the non inclusion and non valuation of women's work in national accounts. Women are implicitly considered as economically unproductive.

The investment gap refers to what women could produce and the investment they command. Households and governments invest less on women as compared to men This can be seen by school enrollment ratio of male and female children at all levels primary, secondary and tertiary level. Women also have less access to health services while their maternal care and family planning need is high. Complication from child bearing remain a major (but avoidable) cause of death for women in many developing countries. The other investment gap is on policies aimed at increasing productivity. The emphasis is on the formal sector rather than the informal and subsistence sector. Much of women's work is not paid and if paid the return for women's labor is less than that of men earning gap.

Wide spread education is a necessary condition for economic growth and sustainable development. It increases household income and well being by increasing productivity or widening income earning opportunities. The overall level of education in Ethiopia is very low. The adult illiteracy ratio is 64.5% of which 74.7% are female and 64.5% are male (PHRDMEDAC, 1996) (see table 1 from appendix).

There is a wide disparity in illiteracy rate among the regions with Afar ranking first and Addis Ababa last. This shows the low level of education in some regions where we find about 92.53% of the population illiterate and in other regions the figure drops to 17.37% while the urban illiteracy rate varies 71.9% to 16.83%, the rural illiteracy rate varies from 96.82% to 62.82%. This again shows the disparity between rural and urban areas with in and across the regions. The difference can further be seen between men and women. (see table 2 from appendix).

Women constitute the largest part of illiterate people the situation being worse on average in rural areas. The gross enrolment ratio at primary (29%), Junior secondary (19%), Senior secondary (9%) and tertiary level; pupil/teacher ratio are at the lowest by any standards. Primary enrolment ratio is only 26.2% as a proportion of the official school age population (7-14)(PHRD-MEDAC 1997) (see table 3 from appendix).

There is a wide disparity among the regions some of them far below the national level. The disparity is wider between rural and urban areas in the same region . The gross enrolment ratio (GER) and net enrolment ratio (NER) in rural areas is by far lower than urban areas in almost all levels of education.(see table 4 from appendix).

GER across the region shows significant variation . Primary GER varies from 26.58 in Tigray to 6.96 in Somali region. Junior secondary GER varies from 104.53 in Addis Ababa to 3.61 in Somali. In senior secondary school, GER varies from 62.00 in Addis Ababa to 1.89 in Somali.

Looking further into the desegregated data of school enrolment as a crude measure of access to education, Ethiopian women do have less access to education as compared to their male counterparts. Considering enrolment at primary, junior secondary and senior secondary school level, women's enrolment declined significantly as one moves up to different levels of learning. The following tables show the GER and NER as well as the Gender Gap (GG) and Gender Index (GPI). (see tables 5, 6 and 7 from appendix).

At primary level the gender varies from 87.71 in Tigray to the lowest in Addis Ababa 4.38 where female enrolment is higher than male. The gender parity index (the ratio of GER of male to female) varies from 2.04 in Benishangul-Gumuz to 0.96 in Addis Ababa. The closer the gender parity index to 1, the higher the gender equality in education. However, the gender parity index shows the prevalence of higher gender inequality in education. The same is true for NER Benishangul-Gumuz with higher gender inequality and Amhara with the lowest inequality. The existence of gender inequality can be seen from the gender gap and gender parity index at junior secondary and senior secondary levels. The gap is wider if we further desegregate the region into rural and urban areas. In rural areas the gender parity index is higher than the urban areas showing significant gender inequality within the region.

In nearly all school levels there is a gender bias in favor of boys as indicated in the enrolment ratio. At tertiary level enrolment of girls is insignificant. In all years female tertiary level enrolment never exceeded 25% of the total enrolment or admissions.
(see table 8 from appendix).

The bias can also be seen in the government scholarship. In all scholarship programs of the year 1995/96, women constitute less than 10%. (see appendix 9).

The bias in education is not only shown by enrolment but also by its outcome in formal employment in the labor market. Table 10 shows the level of education of federal government employees.

The higher the level of education, the wider the percentage gap between male and female employees in the federal government offices. This gap is fueled by on the job training which further places women in a disadvantageous position. Here we can see that, even if they succeeded in securing wage employment, they failed to get on the job training which can be one means of getting promotion and higher income. (see table 11 from appendix).

Of those trained or on training in the year 1989(E.C.) about 72% are men while 28.1% are women. As a percentage of total male and female employees, those on training are 4.53% for male and 2.62% for female.

Constraints to Education

The above macro level data shows the existence of gender bias in access to and achievement in education. The question, then is **‘What are the constraints to education in Ethiopia?’**. Researchers classify constraints to education into three major categories: macro level, supply side and demand side. The macro level constraints include the level of output in the economy (GNP), the degree of urbanization and industrialization, overall level of development etc. (see table 12 from appendix)

The government spending on education is low, i.e. almost 13%. In 1992, expenditure on education as a percentage of total government expenditure was 12.9% for Ethiopia while it was 19.9% for SAA (PHRD 1996). This shows the low level of spending on education as it is compared to SSA and the demand for trained human resource to speed up the growth endeavor of the country. The supply side includes availability of schools, text books, teachers etc.

With increase in the level of education, the concentration of schools in urban areas is higher. While 86.3% of primary schools are located in rural areas, 38.7% and 7.51% of junior and senior secondary schools are located in rural areas respectively. This implies the need for children in rural areas to move to urban centers when they complete primary level education. The willingness and ability of families to send their children to urban areas to continue their education is a determinant factor for rural children for their success in education.

The demand side incorporates family structure, societal characteristics, socio-cultural beliefs, direct and opportunity cost of participation and labor market opportunities. Increasing access to education in the short term run can be achieved by intervening on the side of demand for and supply of education. The demand for and supply of education reinforce each other and there is a need to work on both sides of the market to bring about changes in access to education. The focus of this study is to look at demand side constraints to education and whether there exists difference in ranking of these constraints between boys and girls.

In identifying the constraints at the household level, data generated from the Ethiopian Urban Soico-Economic Survey (1995) conducted by the Department of Economics/AAU and Goteberg University is used. The Survey is conducted in 7 major cities : Addis Ababa (900), Awassa (73), Bahir Dar (100), Dessie (101), Dire Dawa (126), Jimma (100) and Mekele (100). The urban sites seemed to represent various socio-economic conditions in the urban centers of the country. The Survey covered 1500 households and the number of households in each Kebeles are proportional to the kebele's population. Systematic sampling is used in selecting the respondent households. The survey excludes lodgers and hordes households.

Of 1486 households, 932 (62.7%) are male headed and 554 (37.3%) are female headed households. (see table 13 from appendix).

Of all male household heads 2.89% are attending schools, 85.84% have attended and 11.26% never attended schools. Out of female heads 2.17% are attending schools, 50.18% have attended and 47.65% never attended schools. About 47.65% of female heads had no education while the figure for their male counterparts is only 11.26%. This also indicates that women's participation in education is very low.

Individuals were asked the reasons for not attending schools and 1164 (279 male and 885 female). individual response for this question is presented in table 14.

The major demand side constraints are labor demand of their children which can be assessed by the opportunity cost of their labor, direct cost of education (school expenses such as payment, expense for stationaries, etc.), distance, education is not paying, because of bad health and lack of awareness.

For both sexes the opportunity cost of education is higher, being the major constraint of education. Child labor is an important source of income for urban households. This can be explained by the low level of income and intensified poverty in the country which makes

children work at early age than attend schools. While direct cost of education is the second major constraints for males, it is distance to schools for females. Distance to schools is the major problem which can keep girl children out of school. The third major constraint for female is the direct cost of education. Distance to schools is the fourth important constraint for male while education is not paying is for female. Bad health and lack of awareness also are constraints to education. Thus availability of schools and improvement in educational system alone cannot solve the problem. Hence, the demand side problems need to be considered to improve the situation.

Focusing on children of primary school age (7-14), the reason for not attending can be summarized as follows. (see table 15 from appendix).

The direct cost of schooling is the major constraint for primary level school age children in the major urban centers of Ethiopia. As stated before with about 50% of the population having income below the poverty line, one could imagine this being a major constraint for not attending schools. The second major constraints for both sexes is the opportunity cost of their labor. The demand for child labor is higher in poor households keeping them away from schooling. Children are engaged in various activities like shoe shining, selling, chewing gum, kolo etc. on the streets of the urban areas. For girls whose mother's are engaged in informal sector, the responsibility of caring for the household vests purely on them. Lack of awareness also appears as a major constraint in the urban centers of the country.

Out of 4134 children aged below 6 in all the urban centers 2.56% are not attending schools. The distribution is different across the urban centers, Awassa having the highest number of children not attending schools followed by Bahir Dar, Mekele, Addis Ababa, Dire Dawa, Dessie and Jimma. The situation in rural Ethiopia is worse. As we have seen earlier GER is lower for girls children in rural areas at all levels of schooling. Women's low participation rate can be analyzed from economic, social and cultural perspectives. The majority of Ethiopian population live in rural areas engaged in subsistence farming. Women's work burden in rural areas go to about 15 hours per day. Women do have less access to family planning, Thus the distance between two births is small. Pregnant women have the responsibility of caring for their family, food processing, fuel wood collection, water fetching and farming. This makes women to pass partly their burden to their daughters sometimes before they reach the age of 7.

Girls in rural areas start to cook food for the family as early as 7, fetching water, fuel wood and attending their younger brothers and sisters starting from the age of 5 or 6. Girls are a source of supporting labor for overburdened women in rural Ethiopia. Thus the possibilities of girls to be sent to school let alone to distant areas but also nearby areas is very low. Even if they are enrolled they drop out as the demand for their labor increases within the household. During harvest time when women are busy in the fields, young girls are suppose to take care of cooking, house cleaning and all household responsibility. Thus they are faced to quit schools and stay at home. Even if they remained in school the time they can devote to study is very low due to the above mentioned reasons.

In urban areas females enrolment at primary level is higher than that of males . However, the situation is reversed at junior secondary school and there after. In poor households, women work hard in the informal sector to win their daily bread and girls have to take the responsibility of household activities.

Impacts of Women's Education

The above macro level and household level data indicate the prevalence of gender bias in education. This fact reveals that women (girls) do have less access to education than their male counterparts. However, women's education has a positive impact on the overall development of the economy as part of human resource development. Education in general improves productive capacity and brings about attitudinal change which facilitates development of the national economy and well-being of the individual and households. Women's education is part of this development process. The impact of women's education can be seen from an economic and social perspectives.

Economic

Women constituting 50% of the population and contributing about 50% of the subsistence economy, educating them increases household production and national output bringing food self sufficiency at the house hold and the national level. Women's education leads to an increase in productivity of half segment of the labor force. This impact of education can easily be assessed by policy makers. However, there is an improvement in well being of the household which is out of the sight of the policy makers-the non marketed activity of women with in the household and their production in the informal sector. Education increases productive capacity and thereby output at the household and national level, result in fair distribution of income: increase opportunity for wage employment or shift from marginalized to high productive activities: and increase access to credit and training which further raise output and income.

Social

Women's education leads to decrease fertility, increased child health, decreased child mortality, improved nutrition and child education. Education, by changing women's attitude, makes them be active in the social, economic and political sphere of life . It allows them to question traditional practices such as FGM which exposes them to life long suffering . It enables them to look at various alternatives and control the environment they live in. Education as an end by itself and as a means to various ends need to be made more accessible to women as they are not in equal footing as compared to their male counterparts.

This research focuses on the demand side constraints of schooling in the urban areas and the situation of women regarding access to education. Policy makers need to look at this side of the problem if the education system is to contribute to the overall development process. A comprehensive nation wide study need to be made to look at rural-urban differences, gender differences, cultural and religious differences on both demand and supply side. Working on all sides of the constraints, including the demand side, with a gender perspective is necessary if education has to contribute to individual well-being and national output and materialize the positive impact of women's education.

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Appendices

Table 1. Illiteracy Rate Across the Regions (1994)

Region	% Illiterate	% Literate	Illi trate	
			% Urban	% Rural
Addis Ababa	17.37	83.52	16.83	62.82
Afar	92.53	7.41	46.09	96.82
Amhara	82.15	17.78	38.09	86.99
Benushangul Gumz	82.08	17.74	38.75	85.99
Dire Dawa	47.71	51.53	28.88	94.52
Gambella	70.37	28.33	31.52	98.50
Harari	44.94	54.53	19.75	87.51
Oromiya	77.53	22.40	31.77	83.54
SNNPR	75.51	24.44	32.52	78.86
Somali	91.80	8.12	71.90	95.32
Tigray	79.36	20.47	42.57	86.17

Source: CSA. 1996. The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia.

Table 2: Illiteracy Rate, Male and Female (1994)

Region	Total	Male	Female
Addis Ababa	17.37	29.06	70.34
Urban	16.83	28.91	71.09
Rural	62.82	46.53	53.46
Afar	92.53	55.76	44.24
Urban	46.09	41.25	58.75
Rural	96.82	56.39	43.61
Amhara	82.15	46.63	53.37
Urban	38.09	30.19	69.80
Rural	86.99	47.42	52.58
Benushangul Gumz	82.08	46.01	53.99
Urban	38.75	35.32	64.68
Rural	85.99	46.44	53.55
Dire Dawa	47.71	43.59	56.40
Urban	28.88	33.45	66.55
Rural	94.52	51.31	48.69
Gambella	70.37	44.63	55.37
Urban	31.52	34.62	65.38
Rural	78.50	45.48	54.52
Harari	44.94	43.55	56.45
Urban	19.75	29.92	70.08
Rural	87.51	48.75	51.25
Oromiya	77.53	45.37	54.63
Urban	31.77	34.48	65.52
Rural	83.54	45.92	54.08
SNNPR	75.51	43.22	56.78
Urban	32.52	36.26	63.74
Rural	78.86	43.45	56.55
Somali	91.80	52.92	47.08
Urban	71.90	46.91	53.99
Rural	95.32	53.72	46.28
Tigray	79.36	43.89	56.11
Urban	42.57	29.29	70.71
Rural	86.17	45.23	54.77

Source: CSA 1996. The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia.

Table 3. Gross Enrolment Ratio by Levels

Year	Primary			Junior Secondary			Senior Secondary		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1993/94	31.9	17.9	22.8	12.9	12.0	12.4	7.6	6.9	7.3
1994/95	35.7	22.1	29.0	31.7	20.4	26.2	7.5	5.7	6.6
1995/96	43.2	25.6	34.6	16.0	12.9	14.5	9.2	7.0	8.1

Source: MOE. 1996 Statistical Abstract

Table 4. GER and NER in Primary, junior Secondary and Senior Secondary School, Both Sexes (1994)

Region	Primary		Junior Secondary		Senior secondary	
	GER	NER	GER	NER	GER	NER
Addis Ababa	110.55	72.68	104.53	34.58	62.00	35.53
Afar	7.15	3.27	7.91	1.63	3.19	1.33
Amhara	16.05	8.56	15.73	3.62	7.79	3.44
Benishangul	25.49	11.56	13.23	2.29	4.98	1.37
Dire Dawa	57.57	35.93	60.74	15.81	44.44	17.95
Gambella	51.24	21.28	37.30	4.59	13.21	2.86
Harari	59.65	37.96	78.83	20.82	69.38	26.56
Oromiya	21.70	10.76	19.85	4.37	9.58	4.15
SNNPR	29.82	12.55	22.18	3.56	9.05	3.19
Somali	6.96	2.45	3.61	0.43	1.89	0.4
Tigray	26.58	95.17	42.22	6.46	24.86	9.30

Source: CSA.1996. The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia

Table 5: GER & NER of Primary School (1994)

Region	GER				NER			
	Male	Female	GG	GPI	Male	Female	GG	GPI
Addis Ababa	108.3	112.68	-4.38	0.96	73.56	71.48	1.72	1.02
Afar	7.28	6.96	0.32	1.05	3.20	3.37	-0.17	0.95
Amhara	16.98	15.09	1.89	1.13	8.29	8.84	-0.55	0.94
Benishangul	33.83	16.56	17.27	2.04	13.97	8.98	4.99	1.56
Dire Dawa	58.65	56.44	2.21	1.04	36.44	35.42	1.02	1.03
Gambella	58.75	42.54	16.21	1.38	23.97	18.17	5.8	1.32
Harari	59.04	60.32	-1.28	0.98	38.24	37.64	0.6	1.02
Oromiya	25.8	17.41	8.39	1.48	11.86	9.62	2.24	1.23
SNNPR	37.64	21.52	16.12	1.75	15.01	9.95	5.06	1.51
Somali	8.52	4.96	3.56	1.72	2.71	2.13	0.58	1.27
Tigray	308.4	220.69	87.71	1.4	93.81	96.56	-2.75	0.97

Source: CSA.1996. The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia

Table 6: GER and NER of Junior Secondary School (1994)

Region	GER				NER			
	Male	Female	GG	GPI	Male	Female	GG	GPI
Addis Ababa	104.86	104.24	0.62	1.01	35.59	33.70	1.89	1.06
Afar	7.78	7.97	-0.1	0.99	1.54	1.77	-0.23	0.87
Amhara	15.71	15.75	-0.04	0.99	3.30	3.99	-0.69	0.83
Benishangul	16.88	9.07	7.81	1.86	2.66	1.86	0.8	1.43
Dire Dawa	59.64	61.86	-2.22	0.96	15.60	16.02	-0.42	0.97
Gambella	51.99	20.95	31.04	2.48	4.71	4.46	0.25	1.06
Harari	82.83	74.74	8.09	1.11	21.4	20.21	1.19	1.06
SNNPR	28.76	15.08	13.68	1.91	4.01	3.07	0.94	1.31
Oromiya	22.5	17.06	5.44	1.34	4.32	4.41	-0.09	0.98
Somali	4.24	2.74	1.5	1.55	0.55	0.25	0.3	2.2
Tigray	44.71	39.04	5.67	1.15	6.64	6.22	0.42	1.07

Source: CSA. 1996.The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia

Table 7: GER and NER of Senior Secondary School (1994)

Region	GER				NER			
	Male	Female	GG	GPI	Male	Female	GG	GPI
A.A	68.63	56.87	11.76	1.21	37.96	33.64	4.32	1.13
Afar	3.50	2.69	0.81	1.30	1.25	1.45	-0.2	0.86
Amhara	8.43	7.15	1.28	1.78	3.24	3.63	-0.39	0.89
Benishangul	6.46	3.56	2.9	1.81	1.36	1.37	-0.01	0.99
Dire Dawa	52.86	36.67	16.19	1.44	18.70	17.26	1.44	1.08
Gambella	20.55	5.70	14.85	3.61	4.35	1.34	3.01	3.25
Harari	76.01	63.26	12.75	2.47	25.59	27.45	-1.86	0.93
Oromiya	11.34	7.79	3.55	1.46	4.23	4.07	0.16	1.04
SNNPR	12.17	5.88	6.29	2.07	3.68	2.68	1.00	1.37
Somali	2.13	1.54	0.59	1.38	0.50	0.37	0.13	1.35
Tigray	23.59	26.84	-3.25	0.88	8.26	10.93	-2.67	0.76

Source: CSA. 1996. The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia.

Table 8. Trends of New Students Admitted into Institutions of Higher Education by Program Level

Year	Diploma				Under graduate Degree			
	Total	Male	Female	% of female	Total	Male	Female	% of female
1985/86	3026	2597	429	14.18	3278	2912	375	11.44
1986/87	2979	2607	377	12.66	3013	2781	232	7.69
1987/88	3529	2934	595	16.86	3090	2747	343	11.10
1988/89	3716	3124	592	15.93	2895	2593	302	10.43
1989/90	3761	3097	664	17.65	2978	2663	315	10.58
1990/91	3531	2976	555	15.72	2995	2716	279	9.32
1991/92	3449	2966	483	14.00	2607	2157	450	17.26
1992/93	3093	2142	951	30.75	2717	2313	404	14.78
1993/94	3465	2861	604	17.43	3038	2365	673	22.15
1994/95	3278	2798	480	14.64	3076	2507	569	18.49
1995/96	3641	3208	433	11.89	2760	2380	380	13.77

Source: MOE. 1996 Statistical Abstract

Table 9. Ethiopian Students Sent Abroad through Government Scholarship During 1995/96

Program	Total	Male	Female	% of female
Short term/Advance training program	146	139	7	4.79
Undergraduate degree	34	31	3	8.82
Postgraduate Degree	100	96	4	4.00

Source: MOE. 1996 Statistical Abstract

Table 10: Federal Government Permanent Employees by Level of Education (June 1997)

	Total	Male	%	Female	%
Illiterate	11	6	54.55	5	45.45
Read & Write	5817	3383	58.16	2434	41.84
Grade 1-3	1231	608	49.40	623	50.61
Grade 4-8	7669	4266	55.63	3403	44.37
Grade 9-12	10445	5274	50.44	5181	49.56
Certificate	705	363	51.49	342	48.51
Vocational/Tech incomplete	193	99	51.30	94	48.70
Diploma Vocational/Tech	3405	1479	43.44	1926	56.56
1 st -4 th year College	486	374	76.95	112	23.05
Diploma college	3248	2167	66.72	1081	33.28
Others Diploma	1637	831	50.76	806	49.24
B.A/B.SC	3023	2618	86.46	405	13.40
L.L.B	111	104	93.69	7	6.31
M.D	292	254	86.99	38	13.01
D.V.M	48	39	81.25	9	18.75
MA/ M.Sc.	1481	1339	90.41	142	9.59
L.L.M.	19	18	94.74	1	5.26
Ph.D.	181	174	96.13	7	3.87
Not stated	3740	2700	72.19	1040	27.81
Total	43752	26096	59.65	17656	40.35

Source : Federal Civil Services Commission, 1998. Personnel Statistics.

Table 11: Number of Federal Government Employees Trained/on Training in the Ethiopian Fiscal year 1989

Total	Male	%	Female	%
1646	1183	71.9	463	28.1

Source : Federal Civil Services Commission, 1998. Personnel Statistics.

Table 12: Percentage of Education Budget from Total Budget

Region	1993/94	1994/95	1995/96
Addis Ababa	22.3	24.3	15.4
Afar	17.1	23.5	21.0
Amhara	32.2	30.4	28.7
Benishangul Gumz	26.1	34.3	28.5
Central Government	4.1	3.7	4.3
Dire Dawa	25.6	26.5	25.3
Gambella	19.2	22.6	19.3
Harari	27.5	21.1	21.9
Oromiya	30.3	31.2	31.6
SNNPR	30.2	30.1	27.8
Somali	20.8	26.8	23.2
Tigray	28.4	27.0	26.5
Total	13.1	13.0	13.8

Source: MOE. 1996.Statitital Abstract

Table 13. Education of Households Heads

	Attending Schools		Has Attended		Not Attended	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
Male	27	2.89	800	85.84	105	11.26
Female	12	2.17	278	50.18	264	47.65

Table 14 . Reasons for Not Attending Schools

	Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%
Because of bad health	21	7.53	69	7.80
Can not afford school expenses	63	22.58	140	15.82
Could not find a placement	1	0.36	2	0.22
Early marriage	-	-	1	0.11
Education is not paying	40	14.34	111	12.54
Health problem	-	-	2	0.22
Help needed at home	79	28.32	312	35.52
Lack of awareness about education	20	7.17	52	5.88
No specific reasons	4	1.43	3	0.34
Religious/cultural reasons	4	1.43	12	1.36
School not available in my area	6	2.15	12	1.36
School is too far	32	11.47	142	16.05
Others	9	3.23	27	3.05
Total	279	100	885	100

Table 15: Reasons For not Attending, for Primary Level School Age Children

	Male		Female	
	Number	%	Number	%
Because of bad health	6	13.64	-	-
Can not afford school expenses	25	56.82	27	52.94
Could not find a placement	-	-	1	1.96
Help needed at home	7	15.97	12	23.52
Lack of awareness	2	4.54	4	7.84
Religious/cultural reasons	1	2.27	-	-
School is too far	-	-	5	9.80
No specific reasons	1	2.27	-	-
Others	2	4.55	2	3.92
Total	44	100	51	100